



Corrosion Mechanism and Mitigation in Batteries: A Review

Mahesh R¹, Tripathi Y^{2*}, Sneha P.M³, Kusuma Sampada H⁴, Hetasvi BV⁵

DOI:10.5281/zenodo.15628982

¹ Mahesh R, Associate Professor, Department of Chemistry, R.V. College of Engineering, Bangalore, Karnataka, India.

^{2*} Yashvi Tripathi, Student, Department of Biotechnology, R.V. College of Engineering, Bangalore, Karnataka, India.


³ Sneha P.M, Student, Department of Information Science, R.V. College of Engineering, Bangalore, Karnataka, India.

⁴ Kusuma Sampada H, Student, Department of Biotechnology, R.V. College of Engineering, Bangalore, Karnataka, India.

⁵ Bandi Vijaya Hetasvi, Student, Department of Chemical Engineering, R.V. College of Engineering, Bangalore, Karnataka, India.

Batteries are essential electrochemical components that drive contemporary technologies such as portable electronics, renewable energy sources, and electric cars. However, rust severely impairs battery longevity and performance by causing chemical and electrochemical degradation of electrodes, current collectors, and interfaces. Capacity fading, elevated internal resistance, and possible safety risks including thermal runaway are all consequences of corrosion. This paper examines the basic mechanisms underlying battery corrosion, classifying several forms such as thermal, electrolyte leakage-induced, galvanic corrosion and so on. Furthermore, a thorough analysis is conducted of the variables that affect corrosion, such as temperature, charge-discharge cycles, and electrolyte composition. Advanced diagnostic methods for corrosion monitoring and detection are covered, including X-ray diffraction (XRD), scanning electron microscopy (SEM), and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS). Additionally, new approaches to corrosion prevention are examined, such as solid-state electrolytes, improved coatings, and electrolyte additives. Additionally emphasized is the use of machine learning and artificial intelligence in conjunction for predictive maintenance and real-time monitoring. Research and development efforts must focus on addressing battery corrosion since it is essential to enhancing the sustainability, dependability, and efficiency of energy storage technologies.

Keywords: corrosion, charge-discharge cycles, capacity fading, corrosion monitoring, electrochemical degradation

Corresponding Author	How to Cite this Article	To Browse
Yashvi Tripathi, Student, Department of Biotechnology, R.V. College of Engineering, Bangalore, Karnataka, India. Email: yashvitripathilko@gmail.com	Mahesh R, Tripathi Y, Sneha P.M, Kusuma Sampada H, Hetasvi BV, Corrosion Mechanism and Mitigation in Batteries: A Review. Appl Sci Biotechnol J Adv Res. 2025;4(3):48-67. Available From https://abjar.vandanapublications.com/index.php/ojs/article/view/93	

Manuscript Received
2025-04-10

Review Round 1
2025-04-29

Review Round 2

Review Round 3

Accepted
2025-05-22

Conflict of Interest
None

Funding
Nil

Ethical Approval
Yes

Plagiarism X-checker
4.48

Note



© 2025 by Mahesh R, Tripathi Y, Sneha P.M, Kusuma Sampada H, Hetasvi BV and Published by Vandana Publications. This is an Open Access article licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/> unported [CC BY 4.0].



1. Introduction

Batteries are essential electrochemical devices that power a wide range of devices, including electric vehicles (EVs), renewable energy systems, and portable electronics. They store chemical energy and transform it into electrical energy through regulated redox reactions. Fundamentally, batteries are made up of an electrolyte that facilitates ion movement, an anode (negative electrode), a cathode (positive electrode), and current collectors that allow electrons to flow to an external circuit. The complex interaction of these elements, which must preserve structural and chemical stability under operating pressures, determines the effectiveness and durability of batteries. However, corrosion—a deterioration process that impacts electrodes, current collectors, and interfaces as a result of undesired chemical or electrochemical reactions with the surrounding environment, particularly the electrolyte—is a persistent issue that compromises battery performance. Battery corrosion causes capacity fading, elevated impedance, and eventual failure by dissolving, passivating, or structurally breaking down active materials and supporting structures. The nature of batteries, corrosion mechanisms, consequences, and relevant statistics are examined in this review, which highlights the importance of corrosion in developing battery technology by referencing recent studies.

The basic functioning of a battery depends on reversible electrochemical processes. For example, in lithium-ion batteries (LIBs), the most common technology in contemporary applications, lithium ions move via an organic electrolyte between a metal oxide cathode (such as LiCoO_2) and a graphite anode, while electrons move externally to power devices. Likewise, in lead-acid batteries (LABs), which are extensively utilized in stationary storage and automobiles, lead and lead dioxide are converted in an electrolyte of sulfuric acid. The efficiency of these systems is compromised by corrosion, despite their extensive use. When active materials or current collectors contact with the electrolyte, oxygen, or contaminants at the electrode-electrolyte interface, corrosion occurs in batteries. According to studies on electrochemical stability, the aluminum current collector in LIBs, for instance, may deteriorate when LiPF_6 -based electrolytes are present, either dissolving into the

solution or producing passive layers [1]. Anodic oxidation causes the lead grid in LABs to erode, releasing lead sulfate, which lowers capacity if it is irreversible [2]. Degradation is accelerated by these processes, which are made worse by elements like high voltages, harsh temperatures, and cycle environments.

There are several different mechanisms underlying corrosion. According to a thorough analysis of electrode corrosion in a variety of battery types, electrochemical corrosion happens when electrode materials dissolve or create insulating layers as a result of redox interactions with the electrolyte [3]. For example, zinc anodes in zinc-based aqueous batteries degrade by passivation in alkaline electrolytes or hydrogen evolution, reducing cycle life [3]. Another common mode is galvanic corrosion, which is caused by possible differences between dissimilar metals (such as copper and lithium in LIBs) and leads to parasitic processes that deplete active materials [4]. Studies of aluminum corrosion in LIBs have shown that structural deterioration of current collectors, such as pitting or cracking, exacerbates the problem [5]. Corrosion rates can be increased by high charge-discharge rates, overcharging, or exposure to moisture, among other operational factors. These phenomena are not just material-specific. According to recent studies, interfacial instability is a major bottleneck in next-generation batteries such as lithium-metal and solid-state systems, and corrosion is the main cause of capacity and power fading [6]. Given the complexity of corrosion mechanisms in batteries, it is imperative to adopt a multidisciplinary approach to diagnose, understand, and mitigate degradation. Advanced characterization techniques, such as electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) and mass spectrometry, have been employed to probe corrosion processes at the molecular level, enabling more accurate prediction of battery lifespan and the development of strategies to enhance durability [7]. Furthermore, machine learning-based predictive maintenance systems are being explored to optimize battery management and extend operational life through real-time monitoring and early fault detection.

Battery corrosion has enormous practical and economic ramifications, which reflects its importance in both industry and research. Significant reductions in battery performance are caused by corrosion-related deterioration;

estimations indicate that electrode-electrolyte interactions may be responsible for up to 20% of LIB capacity loss over extended cycling [8]. With a manufacturing capacity of about 120 GWh, the LIB market generated \$40.5 billion in revenue globally in 2020; however, corrosion-induced failures lead to shorter lifespans and safety risks, which raise replacement costs [3]. According to research, between 30 and 50 percent of battery failures in automotive applications are caused by corrosion of the lead grids in lead-acid batteries, which make up a significant portion of stationary storage [2]. Furthermore, the growing EV market which is expected to top 4.7 million units by 2021, significantly exceeding previous projections highlights how urgent it is to address corrosion in order to satisfy sustainability and performance targets [9]. According to these figures, corrosion is both a technical and financial concern, which motivates research into preventative measures including coatings, electrolyte additives, and new materials.

2. Literature Review

The deterioration of metallic parts, like current collectors, in battery systems is frequently caused by electrochemical reactions with electrolytes or external influences. Zhu et al. study the corrosion of aluminum current collectors in high-voltage lithium-ion batteries, observing that anodic dissolution happens when the potential surpasses 4.2 V versus Li/Li^+ [10]. The study emphasizes how hydrofluoric acid (HF), which is produced when electrolyte salts like LiPF_6 break down, speeds up aluminum corrosion and creates a passive AlF_3 layer. Although somewhat protective, this layer eventually raises resistance and lowers battery efficiency. A gap in workable solutions for high-voltage LIBs is highlighted by the authors, who stress the necessity of electrolyte compositions that reduce HF formation. According to Njema et al.'s analysis of the function of current collectors in LIBs, copper, when utilized at the anode, is less likely to corrode than aluminum at the cathode at low potentials (0.01–0.25 V vs. Li/Li^+) [11]. But they warn that, a factor that is frequently disregarded in LIB research, copper can experience pitting corrosion when there are chloride impurities present in the electrolyte. The comprehensive understanding of battery degradation is limited, according to their findings, by the relative neglect of current collectors in comparison to cathode materials or electrolytes.

This discovery supports the need for comprehensive research that takes into account every component of batteries.

Zhang et al. investigate corrosion in aqueous batteries, concentrating on zinc-based systems, going beyond LIBs [12]. They explain how corrosion of zinc anodes in aqueous electrolytes that are neutral or slightly acidic causes hydrogen evolution and capacity loss. The study suggests using zinc oxide (ZnO) and other surface coatings to reduce corrosion, but it doesn't address scalability or long-term durability. This emphasizes a recurrent theme in aqueous battery research: a trade-off between performance and cost-effective alternatives. Chen et al. address battery safety issues, such as current collector corrosion, and emphasize the safety consequences of corrosion [13]. They point out that structural integrity may be jeopardized by corrosion-induced weakening of copper or aluminum foils, raising the possibility of internal short circuits. In severe situations, this leads to thermal runaway, which is a serious issue for LIBs in EVs. According to their findings, corrosion poses a safety risk in addition to being a performance concern, which calls for further study into corrosion-resistant materials. Kim et al. investigates the capacity fading of vanadium oxide (VOX) electrodes in aqueous zinc-ion batteries (AZIBs). It concludes that zinc pyrovanadate (ZVO), an electrochemically inert phase, is the primary cause of performance loss. The study highlights the cross-communication between the anode and cathode to illustrate how zinc metal anode corrosion affects electrolyte pH and results in ZVO formation. The authors demonstrate that lowering anode corrosion significantly increases cycle life through a series of studies utilizing different electrolytes and counter-electrodes. These findings offer guidance on how to improve AZIB performance for large-scale energy storage applications[14].

The paper by Boovaragavan et al. develops a mathematical model to study corrosion at the interface between the active and grid materials in lead-acid batteries. Three different modeling approaches are considered: one describes electrical conductivity as a function of cycle count, another incorporates a resistance loss term resulting from passive corrosion layers, and a third depicts corrosion as a side reaction. The results of the study show that these models provide valuable new insights into understanding and mitigating the effects of corrosion in lead-acid batteries[15].

Halloysite nanotubes (HNTs) are applied to the Zn anode in the study done by Xu et al., to enhance aqueous zinc-ion batteries (AZIBs) and address issues such as corrosion, capacity fading, and hydrogen evolution. In addition to directing Zn²⁺ ion plating, the HNT coating reduces resistance and side reactions. HNTs-Zn/MnO₂ batteries maintain 79% of their capacity at 3C after 400 cycles, which is better than bare Zn anodes. This new interfacial modification is a practical way to increase battery longevity and performance for energy storage applications[16].

Recent research has placed a strong emphasis on mitigation techniques. A carbon cloth substrate covered with silver is suggested by Tian et al. as a means to divert lithium dendrite growth from separators in LIBs, lowering the possibility of short circuits [17]. They do admit, though, that the practicality of silver is limited by its vulnerability to corrosion in specific electrolytes, such as those that include sulfur compounds. This emphasizes how difficult it is to strike a balance between durability and functionality in innovative materials. Rahman et al., on the other hand, talk about aluminum doping in nickel-manganese-cobalt (NMC) cathodes and point out that although it improves structural stability, collector corrosion is not immediately addressed by it [18]. According to their review, reducing corrosive byproducts can be achieved indirectly by enhancing the chemistry of batteries as a whole.

3. Types of Corrosion

There are different types of corrosion that a metal undergoes through. In this paper, few are mentioned and discussed upon elaborately.

A. Galvanic Corrosion

Galvanic corrosion is an electrochemical process that accelerates the anodic material's degradation when two dissimilar metals come into electrical contact with one another while an electrolyte is present. This phenomena is a serious issue with battery systems, particularly when there are multiple metal components used as connectors, casings, or current collectors. Because of the potential difference between the metals, electrons move from the more anodic metal to the more cathodic metal, causing localized anodic material degradation and eventual battery failure.

Because of the disparity in their electrochemical potential, galvanic corrosion frequently happens at the interface between the copper (Cu) and aluminum (Al) current collectors in lithium-ion batteries (LIBs). Because it functions as an ionic conductor and is usually made up of lithium salts dissolved in organic solvents, the electrolyte accelerates the corrosion process. Because it is more anodic, aluminum can dissolve when it comes into touch with copper, forming aluminum hydroxides and oxides that impair battery performance and electrical conductivity [19]. Moreover, galvanic corrosion is made worse by moisture or contaminants in the electrolyte, which speeds up the deterioration of the aluminum current collector [20].

Lead-acid batteries, where lead (Pb) components come into touch with other metallic components like steel or copper connectors, are another crucial location where galvanic corrosion is seen. Localized corrosion results from the sulfuric acid (H₂SO₄) electrolyte's enhancement of electrochemical activity, particularly under high temperature and high humidity circumstances. In addition to causing material loss, this corrosion raises internal resistance, which shortens battery life and efficiency [21]. Additionally, any disparities between different metals might cause galvanic reactions in hybrid battery systems, which include lithium-ion and lead-acid batteries, which can quickly degrade interconnects and terminations [22]. The electrochemical potential difference between the metals, the electrolyte's conductivity and composition, the cathodic to anodic material's surface area ratio, and environmental factors like temperature and humidity all affect how severe galvanic corrosion is in batteries. To lessen this problem, protective techniques have been investigated, including the use of suitable metal pairings, corrosion-resistant coatings, and corrosion inhibitors in electrolytes. Polymeric films and graphene oxide coatings have demonstrated encouraging outcomes in lowering direct metal contact and so delaying corrosion rates [23]. Furthermore, reducing galvanic effects in lithium-ion batteries has been achieved through the use of materials with closer electrochemical potentials, such as copper plated with nickel for current collectors [24].

Recent studies have concentrated on electrolyte engineering and improved material coatings as solutions to the problem of galvanic corrosion. To lessen undesired corrosion reactions, ionic liquid-based electrolytes with minimal reactivity toward metallic components have been developed. Furthermore, corrosion inhibitor-embedded self-healing coatings have been investigated as a dynamic defense against metal deterioration in battery systems [25]. Understanding and preventing galvanic corrosion is still essential to enhancing battery safety and dependability as technology develops to achieve higher energy densities and longer lifespans.

B. Electrolyte Leakage Induced Corrosion

Battery performance, safety, and lifespan are all greatly impacted by corrosion caused by electrolyte leakage, a crucial failure mechanism. This occurrence happens when mechanical damage, inadequate sealing, or extended operational degradation cause the electrolyte—typically a highly conductive and chemically reactive substance—to escape from the battery shell. Electrochemical corrosion occurs when the electrolyte leaks and comes into contact with metal parts of the battery or outside metallic structures [26].

The materials used in the battery and the electrolyte's composition determine the type of corrosion. For example, lithium salts like lithium hexafluorophosphate (LiPF_6) dissolved in organic carbonate solvents make up the electrolytes of lithium-ion batteries. When LiPF_6 leaks, it hydrolyzes in the presence of ambient moisture to generate hydrofluoric acid (HF), a highly corrosive substance that aggressively attacks metal surfaces, such as copper and aluminum current collectors, resulting in safety risks and performance deterioration [27]. In addition to compromising the battery's structural soundness, this deterioration process raises internal resistance, which might result in thermal runaway and additional heat generation. Corrosion shows up differently in aqueous electrolyte-based batteries, such lead-acid and nickel-metal hydride (NiMH) batteries. Sulfuric acid (H_2SO_4) leakage in lead-acid batteries accelerates the development of lead sulfate (PbSO_4), which is frequently irreversible and results in battery failure, by rapidly oxidizing lead components and surrounding metallic structures [28]. Similar to this, leaks of potassium hydroxide

(KOH) electrolyte in NiMH batteries can cause serious alkaline corrosion, especially in the steel and nickel parts of the battery casing and terminals, which can weaken electrical connections and eventually cause failure [29].

The severity of electrolyte leakage-induced corrosion is exacerbated by environmental factors such as humidity, temperature, and exposure to atmospheric contaminants. Higher temperatures accelerate electrolyte decomposition, increasing the likelihood of leakage, while high humidity promotes the formation of secondary corrosive compounds that further degrade metallic components [30]. Additionally, external mechanical stress, such as vibrations or impacts, can compromise the battery seal, leading to gradual leakage and subsequent corrosion over time. Environmental elements including temperature, humidity, and exposure to air pollutants all increase the degree of corrosion caused by electrolyte leaks. High humidity encourages the development of secondary corrosive chemicals that further deteriorate metallic components, while higher temperatures hasten electrolyte breakdown and raise the risk of leakage [30]. Furthermore, the battery seal may be compromised by external mechanical stressors like hits or vibrations, which over time may cause corrosion and slow leakage.

C. Intergranular Corrosion

Localized corrosion along the grain boundaries of metallic materials used in batteries is known as intergranular corrosion (IGC), which can cause structural deterioration and even system collapse. In energy storage systems, where battery components are exposed to a range of electrochemical and ambient conditions that can hasten corrosion, this phenomena is especially important. The depletion or enrichment of alloying elements along the grain boundaries, which renders the bulk material more vulnerable to corrosive assault, is the main mechanism of IGC in battery materials.

For instance, aluminum or stainless steel are frequently utilized for the current collectors and battery casings of lithium-ion batteries (LIBs). Intergranular attack may result from the breakdown of passive coatings on these metals when an aggressive electrolyte, such as lithium hexafluorophosphate (LiPF_6), is present in an organic solvent.

Although the corrosion resistance of stainless steels is based on chromium-rich oxide layers, chromium carbide precipitation can happen along grain boundaries when the steel is subjected to high temperatures during production or cycling. This results in anodic sites that dissolve preferentially in the presence of the electrolyte and depletes the nearby chromium areas, decreasing their resistance to corrosion [31]. Similar to this, fluoride ions from electrolyte breakdown can cause intergranular corrosion in aluminum current collectors. These ions attack the precipitates at the grain boundary, resulting in localized material loss and possible electrical disconnection [32].

Microstructure plays a critical role in intergranular corrosion in lead-acid batteries, where the formation of lead sulfate during charge-discharge cycles can cause grain boundary attack on the lead-based electrodes. Antimony and tin inclusions are examples of impurities and secondary phases that can serve as corrosion initiation sites, causing the corrosion to spread further along the grain boundaries and erode the electrode structure [33]. Furthermore, hydrogen embrittlement can hasten intergranular cracking in battery alloys, particularly in nickel-metal hydride (NiMH) and lithium-metal batteries. The creation of voids and cracks is encouraged by hydrogen absorption at the grain boundaries, which subsequently makes more corrosion and mechanical failure easier [34].

D. Sulphur Corrosion

A crucial degradation phenomenon that has a major impact on battery performance is sulphur corrosion, especially in lead-acid and lithium-sulfur (Li-S) battery systems. Sulfur-containing compounds and battery components interact chemically and electrochemically to cause capacity fade, elevated internal resistance, and a shorter cycle life. Polysulfide shuttle effects, sulfation reactions, and the creation of corrosive sulfur species that react with metallic materials are the fundamental mechanisms of sulfur corrosion.

Because of its high theoretical capacity, sulfur is used as the cathode material in lithium-sulfur batteries. On the other hand, elemental sulfur experiences a sequence of electrochemical reactions during charge and discharge cycles, resulting in the formation of soluble lithium polysulfides (Li_2S_n , where $2 \leq n \leq 8$) that move through the electrolyte.

These polysulfides tend to react with the lithium metal anode, leading to the formation of a non-conductive passivation layer and irreversible loss of active material. This process, known as the polysulfide shuttle effect, not only causes severe capacity fading but also contributes to sulfur-induced corrosion of the lithium anode and current collectors, such as copper and aluminum, which degrade upon prolonged exposure to these reactive species [35], [36]. The efficiency of batteries can also be further reduced by polysulfides' ability to catalyze undesirable side reactions that result in the deposition of insulating lithium sulfide (Li_2S) at the cathode [37].

The main cause of sulfur corrosion in lead-acid batteries is sulfation, which is the accumulation of lead sulfate (PbSO_4) crystals on the electrode surfaces. During normal battery functioning, PbSO_4 is created, and during charging, it is then reduced back to lead (Pb) and lead dioxide (PbO_2). Long-term undercharging or deep discharge, however, causes the formation of big, insoluble PbSO_4 crystals that are difficult to convert back, which lowers the battery's capacity to store and release energy. Sulfuric acid (H_2SO_4) in the electrolyte can also corrode lead-based grid structures, gradually reducing the electrodes' mechanical strength [38]. Impurities like iron and other transition metals cause excessive grid corrosion and cell failure by accelerating corrosion through the promotion of secondary redox processes [39].

The presence of elemental sulfur and hydrogen sulfide (H_2S) gas results in another type of sulfur-induced corrosion in batteries. Sulfur-containing species can produce sulfuric acid or other corrosive substances that target metal parts in humid or hot environments. For example, sulfur can deteriorate the nickel and cobalt electrodes in nickel-based batteries, reducing their mechanical stability and conductivity [40]. Furthermore, environmental contamination with sulfur-containing gases can worsen corrosion in industrial battery applications, especially in high-power energy storage systems employed in renewable energy applications [41].

E. Thermal Corrosion

High temperatures speed up chemical and electrochemical reactions within the battery system, causing thermal corrosion, a crucial deterioration mechanism in batteries.

Performance, longevity, and safety are all greatly impacted by this phenomena, which happens in a variety of battery chemistries, including solid-state, lead-acid, and lithium-ion (Li-ion) batteries. Electrolyte decomposition, metal corrosion at high temperatures, and electrode material degradation are the main causes of thermal corrosion. Transition metal migration and dissolution from the cathode is one of the main causes of heat corrosion in batteries. High temperatures in Li-ion batteries cause cathode materials like lithium cobalt oxide (LCO) and nickel manganese cobalt oxide (NMC) to degrade. Impedance and capacity fading after repeated charge-discharge cycles are increased when transition metal ions such as nickel (Ni), manganese (Mn), and cobalt (Co) are released into the electrolyte and form resistive surface coatings on the anode [42]. Furthermore, the solid electrolyte interphase (SEI) on the anode breaks down more quickly at high temperatures, exposing the electrode material to the electrolyte and encouraging additional corrosion and lithium consumption [43].

Electrolyte decomposition is another major contributor to thermal corrosion. At elevated temperatures, common liquid electrolytes, composed of lithium salts such as LiPF_6 in organic carbonate solvents, decompose and release corrosive by-products like HF (hydrofluoric acid) [44]. The presence of HF leads to aggressive dissolution of the cathode's active material, further exacerbating capacity loss and shortening battery lifespan. Additionally, HF-induced corrosion of current collectors, such as aluminum (Al) in the cathode, results in the formation of an insulating layer that hinders electronic conductivity and electrochemical activity [45].

High temperatures hasten the oxidation of lead (Pb) into lead dioxide (PbO_2) and the subsequent solubility of lead sulfate (PbSO_4), which is the primary site of thermal corrosion in lead-acid batteries. Lead grid corrosion lowers mechanical stability, which causes grid expansion, active material shedding, and battery failure [46]. Similar to this, high temperatures can cause irreversible sulfation, which results in the formation of massive PbSO_4 crystals that hinder efficient charge acceptance and lower battery performance overall [47]. Thermal corrosion can also affect solid-state batteries, which use solid electrolytes rather than liquid ones, however the processes by which they

deteriorate are different. Chemical processes that weaken the electrolyte's ionic conductivity can result from interfacial instability between the solid electrolyte and electrodes at high temperatures. Sulfide-based solid electrolytes, for example, react with lithium metal anodes to produce lithium sulfides and other unwanted byproducts, which raises interfacial resistance and degrades performance [48]. Furthermore, high-temperature moisture intrusion can cause H_2S gas to develop in sulfide electrolytes, which can worsen corrosion and pose safety risks [49].

F. Charging and Discharging Induced Corrosion in Batteries

Oxidation reactions at the anode while charging cause the electrode materials to dissolve or degrade structurally. Lithium ions intercalate inside the anode structure during the lithiation process that occurs in the anode of LIBs, which is usually graphite or lithium metal. Nevertheless, with each charge-discharge cycle, a passivation layer known as the solid-electrolyte interphase (SEI) is formed, increasing internal resistance and decreasing battery capacity [50]. Increased corrosion rates and the dissolution of active materials can result from the instability of the SEI layer, especially at high temperatures or high charging rates [51]. The positive electrode of lead-acid batteries is primarily impacted by corrosion, since PbO_2 combines with sulfuric acid to make PbSO_4 during discharge and regenerates during charging. Continuous cycling, on the other hand, causes grid corrosion, in which the lead grid oxidizes and forms lead dioxide, ultimately weakening the electrode's structural integrity and raising internal resistance [52].

Similar to this, reduction reactions occur at the cathode during discharge, which may also cause the electrode materials to deteriorate. Repeated lithium intercalation and deintercalation in LIBs causes phase shifts and structural stress in the cathode materials, such as lithium cobalt oxide (LiCoO_2) or nickel-manganese-cobalt (NMC) compounds [53]. Surface rebuilding and microcracking brought about by this process expose new electrode surfaces to the electrolyte, hastening corrosion and unintended side reactions [54]. Battery performance is further hampered by the deposition of transition metal ions on the anode as a result of their dissolution from the cathode into the electrolyte [55].

The pH and content of the electrolyte are also important factors in corrosion mechanisms. Electrolyte degradation in aqueous batteries, such as lead-acid and zinc-based systems, causes evolution processes involving hydrogen and oxygen, which exacerbate corrosion at the electrode surfaces [56]. Despite being intended to be stable, non-aqueous electrolytes in LIBs can decompose at high voltages and produce corrosive species that target the anode and cathode [57]. Furthermore, high operating temperatures, moisture, and contaminants hasten corrosion and promote dendrite development in lithium-metal batteries, which can result in catastrophic failures and short circuits [58].

4. Factors Affecting Corrosion

Corrosion in batteries is an important problem that can negatively impact how long they last, how well they work, and how safe they are to use. When batteries corrode, it can lead to reduced performance and reliability, which means they may not hold a charge as long or provide as much power as they should. By understanding the different factors that contribute to corrosion, such as the materials used in the battery, temperature conditions, and how the battery is handled, we can work towards creating better battery designs. Improving these designs could help us make batteries that not only last longer but also operate more effectively in various situations. This knowledge is essential for developing safer batteries that can meet the demands of modern technology and daily use.

A. Temperature and Humidity

Temperature and humidity are key factors that significantly affect the performance and lifespan of batteries. Elevated temperatures can accelerate the chemical reactions occurring inside the battery. This increased reaction rate may lead to the breakdown of the electrolyte, which is essential for the battery's operation, and it can also increase the rate of corrosion of the battery's components. For instance, in lithium-ion batteries, high temperatures can encourage excessive growth of the solid electrolyte interphase (SEI) layer. While this layer is important for battery function, if it becomes too thick, it can hinder ion transport efficiency, resulting in a decrease in capacity over time [59].

Humidity poses additional challenges for battery life and safety. When the air is humid, it can promote the leakage of the electrolyte and increase the conductivity of the environment around the battery. This increased conductivity can lead to the formation of unwanted structures called dendrites. If these dendrites grow large enough, they can cause short circuits within the battery, which may eventually lead to battery failure. Studies focusing on lead-acid batteries have shown that exposure to humid conditions can greatly accelerate grid corrosion, thereby significantly reducing the overall lifespan of the battery [60].

Moreover, extreme variations in temperature can create mechanical stress on the components of the battery due to thermal expansion and contraction. This mechanical stress can result in the formation of micro-cracks within electrode materials. When these cracks occur, they expose new surfaces to the corrosive environment, exacerbating the problem of corrosion. To address these issues, researchers and engineers are exploring effective thermal management strategies, such as utilizing phase change materials and developing advanced cooling techniques. These strategies aim to mitigate the negative effects of temperature and humidity on battery performance and extend the life of batteries in various applications [61].

B. Electrolyte Composition and Concentration

The composition and concentration of electrolytes play a significant role in how quickly the electrodes in batteries corrode. For instance, in lithium-ion batteries, certain types of electrolytes that contain highly reactive chemicals, like those with fluorine compounds, can lead to the degradation of the electrode materials over time. This degradation can weaken the battery and diminish its effectiveness. Furthermore, if there is too much water present in non-aqueous electrolytes, it can trigger a process called hydrolysis. Hydrolysis can result in the formation of corrosive byproducts that can harm the battery components, ultimately affecting performance and lifespan [60].

In the case of lead-acid batteries, the concentration of sulfuric acid is a critical factor in determining how quickly the grid—an essential part of the battery—corrodes. If the sulfuric acid concentration is too high, it can speed up the dissolution of lead, which is a key material in these batteries. On the other hand, if the concentration is too low, it can lead to a problem known as sulfation.

Sulfation occurs when lead sulfate crystals accumulate on the battery plates, which negatively impacts overall battery performance. Research has shown that incorporating corrosion inhibitors and stabilizers into the electrolytes can make a significant difference, enhancing the longevity and functionality of the battery [61].

Additionally, recent research has been dedicated to exploring alternatives like ionic liquids and solid-state electrolytes. These materials are designed to mitigate the corrosive effects often seen with traditional liquid electrolytes. Ionic liquids, which are salts that remain liquid at room temperature, have unique properties that can provide better stability and safety for batteries. Solid-state electrolytes, which eliminate the need for liquid, can offer even greater stability, lower volatility, and fewer unwanted side reactions. These attributes make ionic liquids and solid-state electrolytes promising options for developing next-generation batteries that last longer and perform better than current technologies [62].

C. Current Density and Charge Discharge Cycles

The way batteries are charged has a significant effect on how quickly they can corrode. When batteries are charged or discharged with a high current, it can cause overheating in specific areas. This localized heat can speed up a process called electrochemical corrosion, which basically means the battery material starts to break down because of chemical reactions.

When a battery goes through many charge and discharge cycles, the materials inside experience mechanical stress. This stress can lead to tiny cracks forming in the electrodes, the parts of the battery that store energy. When these cracks appear, they expose fresh surfaces to the surrounding environment, making them more vulnerable to corrosion.

For lithium-ion batteries, charging them too quickly can lead to some problems. One of these is called lithium plating, where lithium metal builds up on the surface of the electrode instead of staying dissolved in the electrolyte. When this happens, the lithium reacts with the electrolyte to create a protective layer known as the solid electrolyte interphase (SEI). However, this layer can become unstable and resistive, meaning it doesn't let ions flow easily, which can harm the battery's performance.

In the case of lead-acid batteries, constant use and recharging can cause what's called grid corrosion. This means that the metal grid inside the battery starts to break down, which can lead to a decrease in the battery's ability to hold a charge, known as capacity fade, as well as an increase in internal resistance. This internal resistance means it takes more effort for the battery to perform, which isn't ideal.

One way to help reduce these harmful effects is by avoiding high charging rates. Instead, using optimized charging methods can be beneficial. For example, advanced techniques like pulse charging and trickle charging have been developed to tackle these issues. These methods work by carefully controlling the flow of current during charging. By doing this, they can prevent excessive amounts of ions from being deposited at once, which helps protect the battery materials from degrading too quickly.

In summary, being mindful of how we charge batteries—like using slower charging rates or specialized techniques—can help extend their lifespan and enhance their performance by reducing the risks of corrosion and other damage that can meet the demands of modern technology and daily use.

D. Material Properties and Coatings

The materials used for electrodes and their protective coatings are crucial when it comes to how well batteries resist corrosion. For instance, in lithium-ion batteries, using nickel-rich cathodes can significantly extend the battery's lifespan, known as cycle life. It's essential, though, that these materials are designed carefully to ensure they perform well while also remaining stable over time [61].

To protect electrodes from the effects of corrosive environments, various types of coatings are applied. These include ceramic films, metal oxide layers, and polymer electrolytes. Research has indicated that batteries equipped with these coated electrodes show much lower rates of corrosion and are able to maintain their performance better, even when exposed to extreme conditions [64]. This means that the right coatings can really make a difference in how long a battery lasts and how well it works.

In addition to these conventional methods, there is growing interest in using nanomaterials and making surface modifications to improve corrosion resistance even further.

For example, advanced techniques like atomic layer deposition (ALD) and plasma-enhanced chemical vapor deposition (PECVD) allow for the creation of very thin protective coatings. These ultra-thin films can protect the battery while ensuring that its performance does not suffer. Such innovations aim to enhance battery durability, which is essential for the development of long-lasting energy storage solutions [63].

By focusing on these materials and techniques, researchers and engineers are working toward creating batteries that not only last longer but also perform reliably under a variety of challenging conditions. It's an exciting area of study with the potential to greatly impact the future of energy storage technology.

5. Effects of Corrosion on Battery Performance

Corrosion is a process that can really cause problems in batteries. When parts of the battery start to corrode, it can weaken the structure and make it less reliable. This means that the battery may not work as well as it should, leading to different kinds of issues during its operation. For instance, if the connections or components of the battery are corroded, it can disrupt the flow of electricity. This may result in reduced power output or even cause the battery to fail entirely in some cases. As a result, the performance of devices that rely on that battery can be affected too. In summary, corrosion is a serious issue that not only compromises the strength of the battery parts but also impacts how well it performs, causing various operational problems along the way. Keeping an eye on corrosion and addressing it promptly can help maintain battery efficiency and reliability[60].

A. Capacity Fading

Corrosion has a critical effect on battery performance, leading to something known as capacity fading. Capacity fading refers to the gradual reduction in a battery's ability to hold charge over time. This issue arises primarily due to the loss of active material, which can occur for a couple of reasons. One main contributor is electrode dissolution, where parts of the battery electrode break down and dissolve into the electrolyte, the fluid inside the battery that facilitates the movement of ions.

Another factor is the formation of a passivation layer, which is a coating that forms on the electrode surface and can inhibit the necessary electrochemical reactions from taking place [62].

In lithium-ion batteries, a specific problem arises with the dissolution of transition metals from the cathodes into the electrolyte. This dissolution can lead to unwanted side reactions, which reduce the number of active sites available for the electrochemical reactions that generate electricity. Consequently, this decreases the overall efficiency of the battery. In the case of lead-acid batteries, grid corrosion can significantly weaken the electrode structure. When the structure of the electrodes is compromised, it leads to a reduction in the utilization of active materials, thus further contributing to capacity fading [60].

Recent research efforts have focused on various solutions to counter these corrosion-related challenges. One promising strategy involves doping electrode materials with different elements, such as magnesium and aluminum. This process of doping aims to stabilize the structure of the electrodes, thereby slowing down the capacity fading that naturally occurs over time. Additionally, researchers are investigating the development of self-healing electrodes. These innovative materials possess the ability to repair any minor cracks or damage, effectively restoring their conductivity and functionality. This area of research is gaining traction as it holds the potential to create longer-lasting batteries that can better maintain their performance over time [65].

In summary, addressing corrosion and its impact on battery performance is essential for advancing battery technology. Ongoing research and innovative approaches are promising pathways to enhance the durability and efficiency of energy storage solutions, ensuring that batteries can serve our energy needs reliably for years to come.

B. Reduced Cycle Life

Corrosion is a big problem that affects the performance and lifespan of battery electrodes. When the electrodes in batteries, like zinc-air and lithium-ion types, start to corrode, they become weaker. This weakening leads to a loss of structural stability, which results in increased internal resistance.

As a result, the batteries struggle to hold a charge, and their cycle life gets shortened. Studies have shown that this kind of corrosion damage can lead to early failure of the batteries. Specifically, it limits the number of times you can charge and discharge a battery before it starts to perform poorly [64].

To tackle the issue of corrosion, researchers and manufacturers are trying several different approaches. One strategy involves using materials that are resistant to corrosion in the first place. This means that the electrode materials would be less likely to degrade over time. Another approach is adding stabilizers to the electrolytes, which can help keep the battery's performance consistent and reduce the rate of corrosion. Additionally, there is ongoing research into self-healing coatings that can be applied to the surfaces of electrodes. These coatings can protect the electrodes from deteriorating further by responding to damage and repairing themselves [63].

Scientists are also looking into artificial solid electrolyte interphases (SEI layers). These layers can adapt over time, adjusting to the conditions that come with repeated charging and discharging cycles. By maintaining their structural integrity, they help prolong the life of the electrodes and the overall battery [60].

Furthermore, there are advancements in battery management systems (BMS). These systems are designed to regulate charging cycles more effectively. By preventing overcharging and deep discharging, the BMS can help reduce the wear and corrosion of electrodes, allowing the batteries to maintain their efficiency for a longer period [66].

C. Increased Internal Resistance

Corrosion can have a significant impact on the performance of batteries, particularly in how they operate over time. When corrosion occurs, it produces byproducts like oxide films and insoluble deposits. These byproducts create a barrier within the battery, which increases its internal resistance. When resistance goes up, it causes more energy to be lost as heat. This heat loss is not just a minor issue; it can seriously reduce the battery's efficiency and power output, which is especially concerning for high-power applications such as electric vehicles and renewable energy systems. Batteries used in these contexts, where performance is critical, suffer greatly from the effects of internal resistance [60].

To address this problem, researchers are looking into various strategies to make batteries more efficient. One promising approach is optimizing the surface treatments of electrodes. This means changing how the surfaces of the battery's electrodes are prepared or coated to prevent corrosion from happening in the first place. Additionally, scientists are exploring advanced formulations for the electrolytes used in batteries. By fine-tuning the chemicals that help conduct electricity within the battery, it's possible to reduce the build-up of internal resistance over time. This is key to maintaining the overall efficiency of batteries, allowing them to perform better for longer periods [66].

Moreover, researchers are also employing advanced modeling and simulations. These tools help predict how corrosion will affect resistance in batteries and allow for optimized designs. This means that engineers can create batteries that are better equipped to handle issues caused by corrosion, thereby improving their durability and efficiency [64].

On a more practical front, one of the latest developments in battery technology involves real-time impedance monitoring. This technique is being integrated into modern battery management systems. It allows for the continuous observation of battery performance, specifically looking for early signs of increased resistance due to corrosion. By detecting these signs early, maintenance can be conducted proactively before significant damage occurs. This approach not only helps to maintain the performance of the batteries but also extends their lifespan, ensuring that users get the most out of their battery systems [62].

In conclusion, while corrosion poses a significant challenge to battery efficiency, ongoing research and technological advancements offer promising solutions to mitigate its effects. By focusing on electrode treatments, electrolyte formulations, advanced modeling, and real-time monitoring, we can enhance battery performance and longevity in demanding applications. efficiency for a longer period [66].

D. Safety Hazards(Thermal Runaway, Leakages)

Temperature and humidity are key factors that significantly affect the performance and lifespan of batteries.

Elevated temperatures can accelerate the chemical reactions occurring inside the battery. This increased reaction rate may lead to the breakdown of the electrolyte, which is essential for the battery's operation, and it can also increase the rate of corrosion of the battery's components. For instance, in lithium-ion batteries, high temperatures can encourage excessive growth of the solid electrolyte interphase (SEI) layer. While this layer is important for battery function, if it becomes too thick, it can hinder ion transport efficiency, resulting in a decrease in capacity over time [1].

Humidity poses additional challenges for battery life and safety. When the air is humid, it can promote the leakage of the electrolyte and increase the conductivity of the environment around the battery. This increased conductivity can lead to the formation of unwanted structures called dendrites. If these dendrites grow large enough, they can cause short circuits within the battery, which may eventually lead to battery failure. Studies focusing on lead-acid batteries have shown that exposure to humid conditions can greatly accelerate grid corrosion, thereby significantly reducing the overall lifespan of the battery [64].

Moreover, extreme variations in temperature can create mechanical stress on the components of the battery due to thermal expansion and contraction. This mechanical stress can result in the formation of micro-cracks within electrode materials. When these cracks occur, they expose new surfaces to the corrosive environment, exacerbating the problem of corrosion. To address these issues, researchers and engineers are exploring effective thermal management strategies, such as utilizing phase change materials and developing advanced cooling techniques. These strategies aim to mitigate the negative effects of temperature and humidity on battery performance and extend the life of batteries in various applications [63]. Corrosion-related failures in batteries can create serious safety issues. One major concern is how the surfaces of the electrodes can deteriorate over time. When this happens, it can cause short circuits. A short circuit can lead to thermal runaway, a dangerous situation where the temperature of the battery rises uncontrollably. This heating can potentially cause battery fires or even explosions. In the case of lead-acid batteries, corrosion can affect the grids within the battery.

This grid corrosion weakens the structure of the battery, which can lead to acid leaking out and releasing hazardous gases into the environment [62].

To tackle these safety risks, battery manufacturers have started using various protective measures. They apply special coatings to the battery components to help prevent corrosion. Additionally, thermal management systems are implemented to keep batteries cool and avoid overheating. Another strategy is to use corrosion-resistant separators that help maintain the integrity of the battery and prevent short circuits. Recent technological advancements have also introduced non-flammable electrolytes and self-extinguishing materials for the batteries which hold great promise in reducing these safety concerns [66].

As the field of battery technology evolves, new battery chemistries are emerging. One example is solid-state batteries, which are seen as a safer alternative because they do not contain flammable liquid electrolytes. This helps to drastically decrease the risk of thermal runaway incidents occurring during battery operation [64].

Moreover, to ensure safety under extreme conditions, extensive testing protocols are being established. These protocols include abuse tests that simulate severe situations, such as nail penetration through the battery or scenarios where the battery is overcharged. Such rigorous testing is crucial to evaluate how well the battery can withstand harsh and potentially dangerous situations. Additionally, the development of multi-layer safety systems is underway. These systems consist of thermal barriers and pressure relief mechanisms designed to enhance the battery's resilience against failures induced by corrosion [65].

In conclusion, while corrosion remains a significant safety challenge for batteries, ongoing advancements in materials, technologies, and safety protocols are making it possible to mitigate these risks effectively. The continuous evolution in battery design and testing ensures that safety remains a top priority in battery technology development.

6. Detection and Monitoring of Corrosion

Corrosion, the progressive deterioration of materials due to chemical or electrochemical interactions with

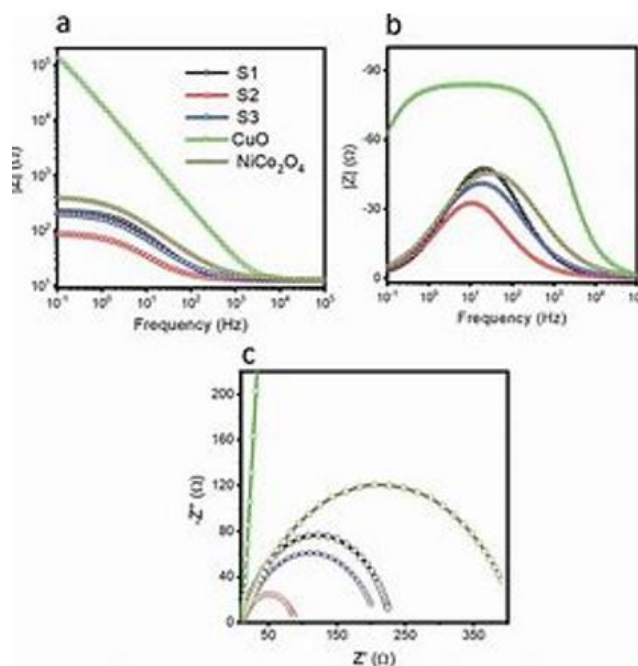
their environment, presents significant challenges across various industries. Accurate detection and monitoring are essential to prevent structural failures and ensure safety. Advanced techniques such as Electrochemical Impedance Spectroscopy (EIS), Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM), and X-Ray Diffraction (XRD) are pivotal in understanding and mitigating corrosion processes.

A. Electrochemical Impedance Spectroscopy

EIS is a non-destructive electrochemical technique that measures a system's impedance over a range of frequencies, providing insights into the electrochemical processes at the material's surface. This method is particularly valuable in diagnosing and analyzing various corrosion processes, including pitting corrosion in stainless steels and crevice corrosion in marine environments [66].

The technique involves applying a small perturbation to the system and measuring the response, which helps elucidate mechanisms such as charge transfer, diffusion, and adsorption. For instance, EIS has been effectively utilized to monitor the degradation of organic coatings over time, providing real-time data on corrosion rates and mechanisms [67].

However, the interpretation of EIS data relies heavily on selecting appropriate equivalent circuit models (ECMs) that accurately represent the system under study. An assessment of commonly used ECMs has highlighted the importance of model selection in accurately diagnosing corrosion processes [68].

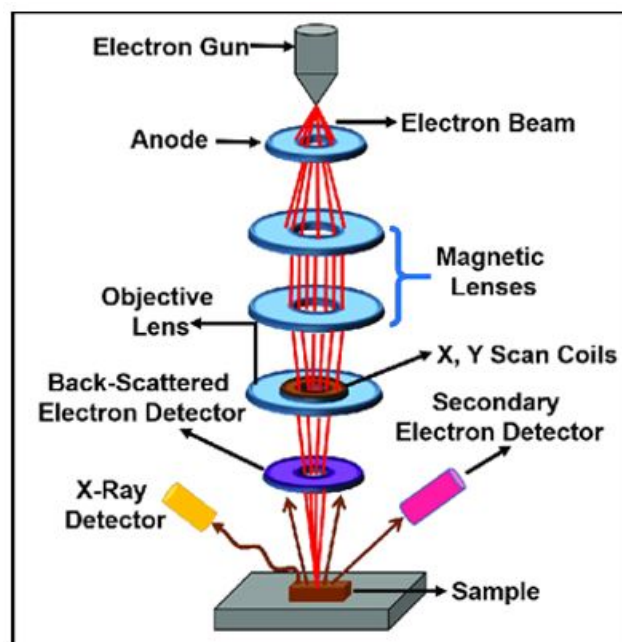


B. Scanning Electron Microscopy

SEM is a powerful imaging technique that offers high-resolution, three-dimensional images of material surfaces. It operates by scanning a focused electron beam across the sample and detecting emitted electrons, which is crucial for analyzing corrosion morphology and identifying corrosion products.

In corrosion studies, SEM enables detailed examination of surface features such as pits, cracks, and intergranular attacks. For example, SEM has been employed to observe biofilm formation and localized attack on metal surfaces in microbiologically influenced corrosion (MIC) studies [69].

Additionally, SEM can be coupled with energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) to perform elemental analysis of corrosion products. This combination allows for the identification of elements present in corrosion deposits, providing insights into corrosion mechanisms and environmental factors contributing to material degradation [65].



C. X-Ray Diffraction

XRD is an analytical technique used to identify crystalline phases in a material by measuring the diffraction patterns of X-rays interacting with the sample. In corrosion science, XRD is instrumental in characterizing corrosion products and understanding the crystallographic nature of protective films or scales formed on metals.

By analyzing diffraction patterns, researchers can determine specific compounds present in corrosion products, such as oxides, hydroxides, or sulfides. This information is vital for understanding corrosion processes and developing strategies to mitigate material degradation. For instance, identifying the formation of specific iron oxides on steel surfaces can indicate the type of corrosion occurring and inform the selection of appropriate protective measures [70].

Moreover, XRD can be employed to study the effects of various environmental conditions on corrosion behavior. By exposing materials to different corrosive environments and analyzing the resulting corrosion products, researchers gain insights into factors influencing corrosion rates and mechanisms, essential for designing materials and coatings with enhanced corrosion resistance [71].

D. Integrative Applications of EIS, SEM and XRD

The combined use of EIS, SEM, and XRD offers a comprehensive approach to corrosion detection and monitoring. EIS provides electrochemical data on corrosion rates and mechanisms, SEM offers detailed visual and elemental analysis of corrosion morphology, and XRD identifies the crystalline phases of corrosion products. Together, these techniques enable a thorough understanding of corrosion processes, facilitating the development of effective prevention and mitigation strategies.

For example, in studying the corrosion behavior of coated metals, EIS can detect changes in impedance indicative of coating degradation. Subsequent SEM analysis can reveal the presence of micro-cracks or delamination, while XRD can identify any crystalline corrosion products formed beneath the coating. This integrative approach allows for the identification of failure mechanisms and the optimization of coating formulations for improved performance [72].

In conclusion, the detection and monitoring of corrosion are critical for ensuring the longevity and safety of materials in various industries. Techniques such as EIS, SEM, and XRD provide complementary data that, when combined, offer a holistic understanding of corrosion phenomena. The continued advancement and application of these methods are essential for developing robust strategies to combat material degradation.

Corrosion Prevention and Mitigation Strategies

Battery corrosion is a significant challenge that affects the performance, safety, and lifespan of energy storage systems. Corrosion-related degradation impacts various battery components, including electrodes, current collectors, and casings, leading to efficiency losses and potential failures [66]. Addressing this issue requires a multi-faceted approach, incorporating advanced material engineering, electrolyte optimization, corrosion inhibitors, and battery management systems (BMS). This paper explores corrosion prevention and mitigation strategies in battery systems, focusing on key techniques to enhance durability and performance.

1. Material Engineering: Corrosion-Resistant Alloys and Coatings

a) Corrosion-Resistant Alloys

One of the primary methods to combat corrosion in battery cells is the use of corrosion-resistant alloys for battery casings, current collectors, and electrodes. Stainless steel, nickel-based alloys, and aluminum alloys are commonly employed in battery applications due to their inherent corrosion resistance. Advanced materials such as titanium alloys and high-entropy alloys (HEAs) have also shown promise in enhancing battery longevity [67].

For lithium-ion batteries (LIBs), aluminum (Al) is widely used for the cathode current collector due to its lightweight and corrosion-resistant properties. However, exposure to high-voltage electrolytes can lead to Al corrosion, which necessitates protective coatings or alloy modifications [68].

b) Protective Coatings

Protective coatings serve as an additional barrier against corrosion. Commonly used coatings include:

- Conductive polymers (e.g., polyaniline, polypyrrole): These coatings offer conductivity while protecting against chemical degradation [4].
- Ceramic coatings (e.g., LiAlO_2 , LiPON): Ceramic coatings enhance mechanical stability and prevent electrolyte penetration [5].
- Carbon-based coatings (e.g., graphene, carbon nanotubes): These coatings improve electrochemical performance and reduce corrosion susceptibility [6].

2. Electrolyte Optimization

Electrolytes play a crucial role in battery performance and longevity. The composition of electrolytes can significantly impact the corrosion behavior of battery components. Strategies for electrolyte optimization include:

a) Stable Electrolyte Formulations

Formulating electrolytes with corrosion-resistant properties is essential for long-term battery stability. Non-aqueous electrolytes, particularly those based on lithium hexafluorophosphate (LiPF₆) in organic solvents, are widely used in LIBs. However, LiPF₆ is prone to hydrolysis, producing hydrofluoric acid (HF), which accelerates corrosion [72]. Alternative salts such as lithium bis(fluorosulfonyl)imide (LiFSI) and lithium difluoro(oxalato)borate (LiDFOB) exhibit superior stability and lower corrosivity [73].

b) pH and Water Content Control

In aqueous battery systems, controlling pH and water content is critical. High pH levels can lead to metal dissolution, whereas excessive water content accelerates electrode corrosion. Electrolyte additives and buffering agents help maintain optimal pH and reduce corrosion rates [74].

3. Additives to Inhibit Corrosion

Electrolyte additives are incorporated to suppress corrosion mechanisms within battery systems. These additives function by forming passivation layers, neutralizing corrosive species, or modifying electrode-electrolyte interactions.

a) Solid-Electrolyte Interphase (SEI) Enhancers

SEI layers form on anodes to prevent further degradation. Additives such as vinylene carbonate (VC) and fluoroethylene carbonate (FEC) improve SEI stability, reducing corrosion-related failures [75].

b) Corrosion Inhibitors

Specific inhibitors such as phosphates, borates, and sulfates act by adsorbing onto metal surfaces, forming protective films that impede corrosion. In LIBs, phosphate-based inhibitors (e.g., lithium difluorophosphate) are particularly effective in mitigating metal dissolution [76].

c) Ionic Liquids

Ionic liquid-based electrolytes exhibit high thermal stability and low flammability, reducing the risk of corrosion and improving battery lifespan [77].

3. Battery Management Systems (BMS) for Environmental Control

Battery Management Systems (BMS) play a crucial role in mitigating corrosion by regulating temperature, voltage, and environmental conditions. Key BMS strategies include:

a) Thermal Management

Excessive temperatures accelerate corrosion rates, leading to battery failure. BMS ensures optimal thermal conditions through active cooling and heat dissipation mechanisms [78].

b) Overcharge and Overdischarge Protection

Overcharging and deep discharging exacerbate electrode degradation and increase the likelihood of corrosion. BMS algorithms prevent these issues by controlling charge-discharge cycles [79].

5. Real-Time Monitoring

Advanced BMS integrate real-time corrosion monitoring sensors, which detect early signs of metal degradation, allowing preventive actions to be taken [80].

7. Effects of Corrosion on Battery Performance

The pursuit of innovative materials and monitoring systems for corrosion mitigation has garnered substantial attention in recent years, driven by the paramount importance of structural integrity across diverse industries. Specifically, materials engineered to exhibit enhanced corrosion resistance, such as thin-film electrical resistance sensors, have demonstrated considerable potential in augmenting detection capabilities in both benign and aggressive environments. These sensors, fabricated via advanced deposition techniques like DC magnetron sputtering, offer heightened sensitivity due to their reduced thickness, thereby enabling the early detection of corrosion-related degradation, particularly in localized forms that conventional methods may overlook.

In tandem, solid-state electrolytes have emerged as crucial components in corrosion monitoring technologies, offering stable electrochemical properties and robust ion conductivity that enhance the functionality of sensor systems. This ensures consistent performance across diverse environmental conditions. Moreover, self-healing coatings and materials represent a transformative approach to corrosion prevention, possessing the intrinsic ability to autonomously repair micro-damages[67].

This functionality extends the longevity of protective coatings and minimizes the need for frequent maintenance interventions, particularly in aerospace, marine, and infrastructure sectors where continuous exposure to harsh environments accelerates material degradation. The integration of artificial intelligence and machine learning into corrosion monitoring systems has introduced a paradigm shift in predictive maintenance strategies. AI-driven systems can analyze vast datasets generated from real-time monitoring to identify early-stage corrosion phenomena and predict future degradation patterns with high accuracy. These intelligent systems utilize algorithms capable of processing complex environmental and material interaction data, enabling the early detection of structural vulnerabilities and optimizing maintenance schedules. [2]For instance, AI-enhanced models, such as neural networks and machine vision systems, have been effectively employed to monitor pipelines, chemical storage units, and offshore structures, significantly reducing operational risks and maintenance costs.[3] Furthermore, the development of cost-effective corrosion monitoring technologies, particularly those employing microcontrollers like Arduino, has democratized access to sophisticated monitoring systems. These low-cost sensors, coupled with data acquisition platforms, enable continuous surveillance in industrial settings, providing real-time feedback on structural health. Collectively, the advancements in corrosion-resistant materials, self-healing technologies, solid-state electrolytes, and AI-driven monitoring frameworks represent a comprehensive approach to enhancing the resilience of critical infrastructure.

8. Recent Advances and Innovation

The pursuit of innovative materials and monitoring systems for corrosion mitigation has garnered substantial attention in recent years, driven by the paramount importance of structural integrity across diverse industries. Specifically, materials engineered to exhibit enhanced corrosion resistance, such as thin-film electrical resistance sensors, have demonstrated considerable potential in augmenting detection capabilities in both benign and aggressive environments. These sensors, fabricated via advanced deposition techniques like DC magnetron sputtering, offer heightened sensitivity due to their reduced thickness, thereby enabling the early detection of corrosion-related degradation, particularly in localized forms that conventional methods may overlook. In tandem, solid-state electrolytes have emerged as crucial components in corrosion monitoring technologies, offering stable electrochemical properties and robust ion conductivity that enhance the functionality of sensor systems. This ensures consistent performance across diverse environmental conditions. Moreover, self-healing coatings and materials represent a transformative approach to corrosion prevention, possessing the intrinsic ability to autonomously repair micro-damages.[81]This functionality extends the longevity of protective coatings and minimizes the need for frequent maintenance interventions, particularly in aerospace, marine, and infrastructure sectors where continuous exposure to harsh environments accelerates material degradation. The integration of artificial intelligence and machine learning into corrosion monitoring systems has introduced a paradigm shift in predictive maintenance strategies. AI-driven systems can analyze vast datasets generated from real-time monitoring to identify early-stage corrosion phenomena and predict future degradation patterns with high accuracy. These intelligent systems utilize algorithms capable of processing complex environmental and material interaction data, enabling the early detection of structural vulnerabilities and optimizing maintenance schedules.[82] For instance, AI-enhanced models, such as neural networks and machine vision systems, have been effectively employed to monitor pipelines, chemical storage units, and offshore structures, significantly reducing operational risks and maintenance costs.[83]

Furthermore, the development of cost-effective corrosion monitoring technologies, particularly those employing microcontrollers like Arduino, has democratized access to sophisticated monitoring systems. These low-cost sensors, coupled with data acquisition platforms, enable continuous surveillance in industrial settings, providing real-time feedback on structural health. Collectively, the advancements in corrosion-resistant materials, self-healing technologies, solid-state electrolytes, and AI-driven monitoring frameworks represent a comprehensive approach to enhancing the resilience of critical infrastructure.

9. Challenges and Future Directions

The development and implementation of advanced corrosion-resistant materials and monitoring systems face complex challenges, particularly when transitioning from laboratory research to large-scale industrial applications. A primary obstacle is striking a balance between cost and performance. While cutting-edge technologies, such as nanostructured coatings and AI-driven monitoring systems, offer significant improvements in corrosion protection and detection, their high production costs hinder widespread adoption. Advanced corrosion inhibitors, including hybrid and eco-friendly options, pose economic viability concerns due to complex synthesis routes or expensive raw materials.[84] Optimizing cost-performance requires innovative approaches, such as integrating low-cost, sustainable materials with high-performance polymers or employing machine learning algorithms to optimize maintenance schedules. Another critical consideration is the environmental and sustainability impact.

Traditional corrosion inhibitors have raised significant ecological concerns due to their toxicity and persistence. In response, research has focused on developing eco-friendly corrosion inhibitors, including plant-derived compounds and biodegradable polymers. However, ensuring the long-term stability and performance of these green inhibitors under fluctuating environmental conditions remains a challenge. [85]Scaling from laboratory conditions to commercial applications poses another significant challenge.

Innovative materials and technologies often demonstrate promising results in controlled laboratory settings but fail to replicate the same performance in real-world environments. Bridging this gap requires comprehensive field trials, advanced simulation models, and collaboration between academia and industry. Future research directions should emphasize the development of scalable, cost-effective, and environmentally sustainable corrosion protection strategies.

Advancing AI-driven corrosion monitoring systems that integrate machine learning algorithms capable of predicting corrosion behavior based on environmental and operational data is crucial.[86] Additionally, pursuing self-healing materials with enhanced mechanical properties and improved longevity under diverse environmental conditions remains a promising avenue for future research. Integrating interdisciplinary approaches, combining materials science, computational modeling, and environmental engineering, will be critical in developing corrosion mitigation strategies that balance efficiency, cost, and sustainability. This holistic approach will ensure that corrosion-resistant materials and monitoring systems can meet the demands of modern industrial applications while minimizing their environmental footprint.

References

1. Vijayasekaran Boovaragavan, R. N. Methakar, Venkatsailanathan Ramadesigan, & V. R. Subramanian. (2009). A mathematical model of the lead-acid battery to address the effect of corrosion. *Journal of The Electrochemical Society*, 156(11), A854–A854. doi: 10.1149/1.3190510.
2. P. Xu, C. Wang, B. Zhao, Y. Zhou, & H. Cheng. (2021). An interfacial coating with high corrosion resistance based on halloysite nanotubes for anode protection of zinc-ion batteries. *Journal of Colloid and Interface Science*, 602, 859–867. doi: 10.1016/j.jcis.2021.06.057.
3. H. Tian, Y. Guo, & J. Qiao. (2025 Feb.). Silver-coated carbon cloth for dendrite suppression in lithium-ion batteries. *Batteries*, 11(2), 74.
4. T. Rahman, T. Alharbi, & M. S. H. Lipu. (2024). Exploring lithium-ion battery degradation: A concise review of critical factors, impacts, and data-driven estimation techniques. *Batteries*, 10(7), 220.

5. H. Zhang, X. Li, Y. Wang, & J. Chen. (2020). Aluminum corrosion in lithium-ion battery electrolytes: Mechanisms and mitigation strategies. *Journal of Power Sources*, 450, 227650.
6. R. K. Gupta, M. S. Islam, & P. Singh. (2021). Influence of electrolyte composition on aluminum current collector corrosion in lithium-ion batteries. *Electrochimica Acta*, 367, 137-146.
7. J. T. Verde, & K. J. Stevenson. (2022). Galvanic corrosion in lead-acid batteries and its implications for battery longevity. *Electrochimica Acta*, 320, 134871.
8. S. H. Lee, H. Y. Park, & D. W. Kim. (2023). Electrochemical interactions in hybrid battery systems: Galvanic corrosion effects. *Energy Storage Materials*, 45, 23-35.
9. L. M. Zhou, X. G. Yang, & C. Y. Wang. (2022). Graphene-based anti-corrosion coatings for lithium-ion batteries. *Advanced Materials*, 34(6), 2104532.
10. T. K. Hansen, P. R. Brown, & J. D. Evans. (2021). Electrochemical stability of nickel-coated copper current collectors in lithium-ion batteries. *Journal of the Electrochemical Society*, 168(12), 120511.
11. M. A. Rahman, N. K. Roy, & S. P. Biswas. (2023). Self-healing coatings for corrosion protection in energy storage devices. *ACS Applied Materials & Interfaces*, 15(10), 17823-17835.
12. Y. Zhang, L. Wang, & X. Liu. (2020). Corrosion mechanisms in lithium-ion batteries: Impact of electrolyte leakage on battery components. *Electrochimica Acta*, 330, 135256.
13. J. Kim, H. Lee, & S. Park. (2021). Decomposition of lithium hexafluorophosphate in humid environments and its effect on battery performance. *Journal of Power Sources*, 456, 227899.
14. T. Brown, & M. Green. (2019). Electrochemical degradation in lead-acid batteries: Corrosion effects of sulfuric acid leakage. *Battery Research Journal*, 17(4), 315-327.
15. K. Nakamura, P. Singh, & R. Jones. (2022). Alkaline corrosion in nickel-metal hydride batteries due to electrolyte leakage. *Journal of Electrochemical Science and Engineering*, 12(2), 112-123.
16. M. Huang, C. Zhao, & X. Li. (2020). Environmental impact on battery electrolyte stability and leakage-induced corrosion. *Energy Storage Materials*, 28, 456-472.
17. H. J. Grabke, E. R. Macherauch, & B. Schütze. (1995). The mechanism of intergranular corrosion in stainless steels. *Corrosion Science*, 37(8), 1161-1182.
18. X. Zhou, H. Xu, Y. Liu, & K. Zhang. (2017). Intergranular corrosion of aluminum current collectors in lithium-ion batteries: A fluoride-induced degradation mechanism. *Electrochimica Acta*, 245, 632-641.
19. J. C. Farmer, & T. D. Burchell. (1996). Corrosion of lead and lead-based alloys in electrochemical applications. *Journal of the Electrochemical Society*, 143(2), 564-572.
20. G. H. Meier, & F. S. Pettit. (1983). Hydrogen embrittlement and intergranular corrosion in nickel-based alloys. *Metallurgical Transactions A*, 14(5), 1083-1093.
21. D. Lin, Y. Liu, & Y. Cui. (2017). Reviving lithium metal anodes for next-generation batteries. *Nature Nanotechnology*, 12(3), 194-206.
22. J. M. Tarascon, & M. Armand. (2001). Issues and challenges facing rechargeable lithium batteries. *Nature*, 414(6861), 359-367.
23. X. Ji, & L. F. Nazar. (2010). Advances in Li-S batteries. *Journal of Materials Chemistry*, 20(41), 9821-9826.
24. D. Pavlov. (2017). *Lead-acid batteries: Science and technology*. (2nd ed.). Amsterdam, Netherlands: Elsevier.
25. H. Bode. (1977). *Lead-acid batteries*. New York, USA: Wiley.
26. P. G. Bruce, S. A. Freunberger, L. J. Hardwick, & J. M. Tarascon. (2012). Li-O₂ and Li-S batteries with high energy storage. *Nature Materials*, 11(1), 19-29.
27. A. Manthiram, Y. Fu, S.-H. Chung, C. Zu, & Y.-S. Su. (2014). Rechargeable lithium-sulfur batteries. *Chemical Reviews*, 114(23), 11751-11787.
28. J. Kim, H. Lee, & J. Cho. (2020). A review of transition metal dissolution in Li-ion batteries: Solutions and future challenges. *J. Mater. Chem. A*, 8(12), 5760-5780.

29. X. Zhang, W. Shyy, & A. Marie Sastry. (2007). Numerical simulation of intercalation-induced stress in Li-ion battery electrode particles. *J. Electrochem. Soc.*, 154(10), A910-A916.
30. M. Metzger, M. Badway, D. G. Lutz, & B. L. Lucht. (2016). Role of electrolyte decomposition in the performance of high-voltage lithium-ion batteries. *Electrochem. Commun.*, 63, 18-21.
31. Y. Zhang, X. Zeng, & G. Liang. (2019). Aluminum corrosion in lithium-ion batteries: Mechanisms and mitigation strategies. *J. Power Sources*, 412, 37-49.
32. J. Garche, & A. Jossen. (2002). Battery behavior and properties as a function of temperature. *J. Power Sources*, 105(2), 200-211.
33. D. Pavlov. (2011). Lead-acid batteries: Science and technology. *Elsevier*.
34. S. Randau et al. (2020). Interfacial stability of lithium metal solid-state batteries: A review. *ACS Energy Lett.*, 5(7), 2292-2304.
35. Y. Zhu, X. He, & Y. Mo. (2017). Origin of outstanding stability in the lithium solid electrolyte materials. *Chem. Mater.*, 29(21), 9478-9485.
36. J. Vetter, P. Novák, M. R. Wagner, C. Veit, K. C. Möller, J. Besenhard, M. Winter, M. Wohlfahrt-Mehrens, C. Vogler, & A. Hammouche. (2005). Ageing mechanisms in lithium-ion batteries. *Journal of Power Sources*, 147(1-2), 269-281.
37. P. Verma, P. Maire, & P. Novák. (2010). A review of the features and analyses of the solid electrolyte interphase in Li-ion batteries. *Electrochimica Acta*, 55(22), 6332-6341.
38. D. Pavlov. (2011). Lead-acid batteries: science and technology. *Elsevier Science*.
39. M. M. Thackeray, C. Wolverton, & E. D. Isaacs. (2012). Electrical energy storage for transportation—approaching the limits of, and going beyond, lithium-ion batteries. *Energy & Environmental Science*, 5(7), 7854-7863.
40. J. Nanda, L. Yang, J. T. Vaughey, & M. M. Thackeray. (2012). Cathode materials for lithium-ion batteries: an overview. *Electrochemical Society Interface*, 21(2), 35-42.
41. Y. Sun, N. Liu, & Y. Cui. (2016). Promises and challenges of nanomaterials for lithium-based rechargeable batteries. *Nature Energy*, 1(7), 16071.
42. P. W. Ruch, D. Cericola, R. Koenigshofer, & R. Kötz. (2010). Corrosion effects in battery electrolytes. *Electrochimica Acta*, 55(22), 6332-6341.
43. K. Xu. (2014). Electrolytes and interphases in Li-ion batteries and beyond. *Chemical Reviews*, 114(23), 11503-11618.
44. Y. Zhao, L. L. Liu, X. S. Zhou, & L. F. Li. (2020). Dendrite growth in lithium metal batteries. *Nature Reviews Materials*, 5(3), 229-242.
45. O. Verners, G. Psogiannakis, & A. C. T. van Duin. Comparative molecular dynamics study of fcc-Al hydrogen embrittlement. *Unpublished*.
46. R. Perriment, V. Kumtepli, M. D. McCulloch, & D. A. Howey. Lead-acid battery lifetime extension in solar home systems under different operating conditions. *Unpublished*.
47. T. Rahman, & T. Alharbi. Exploring lithium-ion battery degradation: A concise review of critical factors, impacts, data-driven degradation estimation techniques, and sustainable directions for energy storage systems. *Unpublished*.
48. V. S. Sajj. Corrosion and materials degradation in electrochemical energy storage and conversion devices. *Unpublished*.
49. Y. Zhong, B. Liu, Z. Zhao, Y. Shen, X. Liu, & C. Zhong. Influencing factors of performance degradation of zinc-air batteries exposed to air. *Unpublished*.
50. B. Lu, W. Li, D. Cheng, M. Ceja, W. Bao, C. Fang, & Y. S. Meng. Suppressing chemical corrosions of lithium metal anodes. *Unpublished*.
51. S. Liu. (2023). Wi-Fi energy detection Testbed (12MTC). *GitHub Repository*. Available at: <https://github.com/liustone99/Wi-Fi-Energy-Detection-Testbed-12MTC>.
52. *Treatment episode data set: discharges (TEDS-D): concatenated, 2006 to 2009*. doi:10.3886/ICPSR30122.v2.
53. J. Wang et al. (2021). Corrosion in battery systems: Mechanisms and prevention strategies. *Electrochimica Acta*, 387, 136050.
54. Y. Chen et al. (2022). High-entropy alloys for battery applications: Corrosion resistance and electrochemical performance. *Materials Today*, 45, 23-34.

55. A. Gupta, & M. P. Balogh. (2023). Aluminum corrosion in lithium-ion batteries: Challenges and solutions, *Journal of Power Sources*, 520, 230412.
 56. D. Zhang et al. (2021). Conductive polymer coatings for battery protection. *Progress in Materials Science*, 98, 275-310.
 57. T. Shibata et al. (2023). Ceramic coatings for lithium-ion battery electrodes: A review. *Electrochemical Society Transactions*, 104(5), 45-58.
 58. K. Liu, & Y. Zhao. (2023). Graphene-based coatings for battery applications: Corrosion resistance and conductivity. *Carbon*, 198, 112307.
 59. P. Novak et al. (2022). Electrolyte decomposition and its effect on lithium-ion battery performance. *Journal of the Electrochemical Society*, 170, 123510.
 60. R. McMillan et al. (2022). Lithium salt alternatives for improved electrolyte stability. *Energy Storage Materials*, 36, 87-102.
 61. M. Singh, & S. Patel. (2023). Aqueous electrolyte optimization for corrosion control in zinc-based batteries. *Journal of Applied Electrochemistry*, 54, 178-192.
 62. H. Wu et al. (2023). SEI layer stability and its impact on battery lifespan. *Advanced Energy Materials*, 12, 2104325.
 63. J. Kim et al. (2023). Phosphate-based inhibitors for lithium-ion batteries. *Electrochimica Acta*, 415, 140315.
 64. L. Zhou et al. (2023). Ionic liquid electrolytes for advanced battery systems. *Journal of Power Sources*, 530, 231147.
 65. C. Huang et al. (2022). Thermal management in lithium-ion batteries: Challenges and solutions. *Applied Thermal Engineering*, 195, 117052.
 66. Y. Sun et al. (2022). Overcharge protection mechanisms in lithium-ion batteries. *Journal of Electrochemical Energy Conversion*, 22, 210301.
 67. S. Ahmed et al. (2023). Real-time corrosion monitoring in battery management systems. *Sensors and Actuators B: Chemical*, 379, 133028.
 68. Habib, U., Ahmad, F., Awais, M., Naz, N., Aslam, M., Urooj, M., ... & Shabbir, M. J. (2023). Sustainable catalysis: navigating challenges and embracing opportunities for a greener future. *J. Chem. Environ*, 2(2), 14-53.
 69. Aydinsoy, E. A., Aghamaliyev, Z. Z., Aghamaliyeva, D. B., & Abbasov, V. B. (2024). A systematic review of corrosion inhibitors in marine environments: Insights from the last 5 years. *Processes of Petrochemistry and Oil Refining*, 25(3).
 70. Komary, M., Komarizadehasl, S., Tošić, N., Segura, I., Lozano-Galant, J. A., & Turmo, J. (2023). Low-cost technologies used in corrosion monitoring. *Sensors*, 23(3), 1309.
 71. Li, S., Kim, Y. G., Jung, S., Song, H. S., & Lee, S. M. (2007). Application of steel thin film electrical resistance sensor for in situ corrosion monitoring. *Sensors and Actuators B: Chemical*, 120(2), 368-377
 72. Saminathan, R., Nashali, A. Y. A., Haqawi, A. A. A., Marappan, S., Natesan, S. P., & Shakeel, F. (2024). Role of artificial intelligence (AI) and machine learning (ML) in the corrosion monitoring processes. *Zastita Materijala*, 65(3), 473-480.
- Disclaimer / Publisher's Note: The statements, opinions and data contained in all publications are solely those of the individual author(s) and contributor(s) and not of Journals and/or the editor(s). Journals and/or the editor(s) disclaim responsibility for any injury to people or property resulting from any ideas, methods, instructions or products referred to in the content.